

Contemporary Psychology

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Maverick Brain Functions

Wilder Penfield and Lamar Roberts

Speech and Brain-Mechanisms. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1959. Pp. xiv + 286. \$6.00.

Reviewed by O. L. ZANGWILL

Professor Zangwill is Professor of Experimental Psychology at the University of Cambridge, England, and Director of the Cambridge Psychological Laboratory, being successor to Sir Frederic Bartlett whose pupil he once was. He is Visiting Psychologist to the National Hospital for Nervous Diseases in Queen Square, London and sometime Research Psychologist in the Brain Injuries Unit of Edinburgh. He edits the Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology and is a member of the Editorial Panel of Brain.

THE advance of neurosurgery has brought about important gains in the study of human brain functions. Until quite recently, research in this field proceeded largely by what was called the "clinico-pathological method," i.e., the attempt to correlate the signs and symptoms of brain disease with the nature and locus of pathological change as established at necropsy. The advent of neurosurgery has however made clear that the effects of disease of a localized area of the brain are often very much more severe than those of its surgical excision. Further, operations on the brain have made possible the use of techniques of stimulation previously limited to the field of animal experiment. In view of these considerations, it might

now seem difficult to reject—as did Lashley—the evidence of clinical neurology as too vague and uncontrolled to merit serious scientific attention.

Neurosurgeons in recent years have become increasingly aware of the opportunities for scientific research afforded by their material—and none more so than the senior author of the present book. Here Professor Penfield and his accomplished collaborator, Dr. Lamar Roberts, have brought together the results of a long series of brain operations which have relevance to the cerebral organization of speech. In the great majority of cases, operation was undertaken for the relief of focal seizures and was conducted under local anesthesia; in a considerable number, the speech cortex was explored and mapped by electrical stimulation at the time of operation. Although the findings (with the exception of those concerned with handedness and laterality of excision) have not been subjected to statistical analysis, the outcome may properly be regarded as a major contribution to the study of aphasia.

THE more important results of the inquiry may be briefly summarized:

(1) *Cerebral Dominance.* The findings obtained both from excision (pp.

92-94) and stimulation (pp. 127-131) support the traditional view that speech is represented unilaterally in the cerebral cortex. This is also indicated by the Wada technique of sodium amytal injection (pp. 86f.), though the findings here are somewhat equivocal (p. 98). At the same time, the results do not support the hypothesis of an intrinsic connection between handedness and the cerebral organization of speech. Although 33 left-handed (or predominantly left-handed) patients were included in this inquiry, there was no case of persistent aphasia following operation on the right hemisphere alone. Further, if cases in which brain injury was sustained before the age of 2 years are excluded, no significant difference was found in the incidence of aphasia after operation on the right hemisphere as between left-handed and right-handed subjects (p. 102). The authors are therefore led to conclude that the left hemisphere was dominant in virtually all their patients, irrespective of handedness.

(2) *Delimitation of 'Speech Areas.'*

In general, excision and cortical mapping respectively gave concordant evidence as regards the locus and limits of the 'speech areas.' This is clearly seen from inspection of Figs. VIII-14 (p. 135) and IX-23 (p. 189). The areas in question may be described as parieto-temporal, inferior frontal and supplementary motor, and of these the first two correspond closely with the classical zones of Wernicke and Broca, respectively. The evidence from excision (though not from stimulation) suggests that the parieto-temporal area is the most important of the three. As regards function, the authors hold strongly



—André Larose, Montreal
WILDER PENFIELD

that removal of brain cortex as such is not responsible for defect of speech, transitory or persistent. In the first place, areas similar in location and extent to those removed in patients who were dysphasic immediately after operation have been removed in other patients without causing immediate difficulty in speech (p. 179). And in the second place, all patients who showed a persistent speech defect are said to have given evidence of more widespread cerebral dysfunction (p. 181). In assessing this view, however, it should be borne in mind that Broca's area (as traditionally defined) was completely removed in only one patient and in no case was the parieto-temporal 'speech area' removed in its entirety.

(3) *Subcortical Mechanisms in Speech.* Recent anatomical studies of cortico-thalamic connections suggest important links between the cortical 'speech areas' and certain thalamic nuclei, in particular the pulvinar (pp. 205-219). A case is quoted in which aphasia was associated with disease of the thalamus without involvement of the cerebral cortex. These data suggest that cortico-thalamic circuits may be of great importance in speech and kindred functions—almost certainly very much more so than the 'transcortical connections' beloved of an earlier generation of neurologists.

(4) *Types of Aphasia.* In cases of cerebral injury and disease, a consider-

able variety of aphasic disorders have been recognized, even if no very satisfactory classification has been achieved. The present findings suggest that the range and variety of dysphasic disorders in neurosurgical cases are considerably more limited. None the less, the authors do suggest (in contradistinction to views which they have expressed earlier) that particular types of language deficit may be associated with the excision of specific cortical areas (p. 190). At the same time, they report that no case of a truly circumscribed deficit in a particular language field (e.g., pure alexia) was observed in this series (p. 220).

(5) *Aphasia in Polyglots.* In bilingual patients (of which this series for obvious geographical reasons included an unusual number), no case of aphasia limited to one language alone was detected (p. 221). Unfortunately, the possibility of differential impairment in the two languages was apparently not explored.

TAKEN together, the findings reported in this volume raise issues of great importance for psychological theory. For example, the finding that excision of brain cortex per se does not provoke aphasia raises in acute form the whole issue of the relations between structure and function in the central nervous system. In so far as the present findings allow any interpretation whatsoever, it might appear that aphasia is due to widespread dysfunction of one or other main 'speech area' rather than to the mere absence of any particular part of it. This might then suggest that, from the point of view of function, all parts of a 'speech area' are essentially equipotential and that the degree of aphasia might well prove to be related to the extent of the lesion within the area in question. Such a conclusion would accord well with the findings of Lashley, especially when it is remembered that he evolved his theory of mass action with reference to cortical areas specialized in function no less than to the cortex as a whole.

It follows also from the present findings that the general relation between handedness and cerebral dominance, for so long taken as axiomatic, is urgently

in need of revision. With all due respect to the present authors, it none the less remains true that in cases of right hemisphere disease aphasia is significantly more common among left-handed than among right-handed patients. Further, the evidence that speech, in left-handed persons, may be represented in both hemispheres is considerably stronger than is indicated by the present authors. Although their conclusions are certainly reasonable, it may be that the whole problem of cerebral dominance is vastly more complex than they had imagined.

In view of the excellence of this inquiry, one may regret that greater attention was not paid to the psychological examination of speech processes or to the performance of the patients on a wider variety of intellectual tasks. (Systematic psychometric testing is reported in only one case.) True, a special study was carried out by Dr. Roberts of 72 of the patients, but the scheme of examination was undeniably crude and can hardly have permitted more than gross clinical evaluation. The richness of observation which one associates, for instance, with the studies of Arnold Pick and Henry Head is nowhere in evidence. Nor, on the other hand, do the data permit of quantitative treatment, as in the well-known survey of Weisenburg and McBride. Neurosurgeons, however, are notoriously



LAMAR ROBERTS

busy men and it would be ungrateful to protest too much.

The main interest of this work to psychologists lies in the promise it gives of a more direct attack on the physical basis of mind. Quite apart from speech, the method of cortical stimulation in Penfield's hands may throw light on the origin of phenomena as diverse and improbable as 'tunes running through the head' and *déjà vu*. Cortical excision,

moreover, provides the nearest analogue to the classical ablation technique which it is possible to undertake with the human subject. Even if such work lacks something of the methodological precision of animal experiment, at least it has the advantage of realism. Psychologists should be on guard lest simple-minded neurosurgeons solve their problems for them while they are busily engaged in prescribing how these problems should be solved.

Buros' Magna Opera

Oscar Krisen Buros (Ed.)

The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, N. J.: Gryphon Press, 1959. Pp. xxx + 1292. \$22.50.

Reviewed by CHARLES R. LANGMUIR

The editor and compiler of these test codices is well described by the reviewer. The volumes constitute the life-work of Professor Buros, who has worked at them compulsively for many years now, assisted by his wife, a loyal editorial associate, and a few others when the rush of a new volume is on, aided by the complacent support of Rutgers University, but with no other backing, for even the Gryphon Press is the Buroses'. Mr. Langmuir, the reviewer, is Director of Research and Special Projects in The Psychological Corporation of New York City. For a number of years he worked with the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and was adjutant in the formation of the Graduate Record Examination.

PUBLICATION of *The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook* marks twenty-five years of remarkable editorial achievement. Actually, the *Fifth Yearbook* is the eighth item in a series of which the first three were bibliographies. Even though the early publications are not in any way comparable to the five yearbooks, they are part of the over-all development. The germ of Buros' unique creation in psychometric literature is found in the energizing

ideas of his first bibliographical product. The 1935 and 1936 issues not only updated Gertrude Hildreth's *Bibliography of Mental Tests and Rating Scales* (1933), but also added practical aids to help the person searching for a test suitable for some purpose. Catalog information about the cost of the tests and the time required for administration was included and, most significantly, references to the literature reporting experimental studies about specific tests were cited. In these early publications the editor's extensive effort to make the information available in the practical, as well as the scholarly, sense can be seen in the elaborate care he gave to classification of entries, indices, and cross references. All of these germinal efforts have been brought to elaborate development in the five yearbooks.

In the third bibliography (1937) the publication was expanded from the initial forty-four pages by an additional one hundred pages, most of which were given over to reprinting excerpts of reviews of books, monographs, and other publications related to educational and psychological measurement. In a prefatory paragraph, the editor turned on the lamp of missionary zeal that clearly motivated and energized the colossal development that followed. He stated that

the book review section, among other values, was expected to aid readers to be more discriminating, to make available some of the provocative statements made by reviewers, and to raise the quality of reviewing. It was but a short step to the idea of disseminating in one publication descriptive and critical reviews of tests along with the bibliographical entries. In the following year, the first of the "frankly critical" yearbooks was born.

IN the mid-1930s, the state of psychometric publishing is indicated in the following comment included in a presentation to the annual conference of the Progressive Education Association. "Today, it is practically impossible . . . to make a thorough appraisal of the construction, validation, and use of most standard tests being published because of the limited amount of trustworthy information supplied by test publishers and authors. . . . There is a greater immediate need for critical evaluations of existing tests and their uses than for the construction of new tests. If only 10% of the money which the foundations have granted to test makers in recent years could have been given to endow a test consumers' research organization, I am sure that the testing movement would be more advanced than it is today. Such an organization would have a tremendous effect on the quality of standard tests published." Sandiford offered a less grandiose proposal in his review of the third bibliography. He suggested, "Buros' annual publication would be made much more useful if he would mark with a prominent star those which were valid, reliable, and had satisfactory norms. Then busy workers could neglect the rest, or if they wasted their money on gold bricks, the fault would be their own."

An attempt to start a test consumers' research organization was unsuccessful, but Buros was able to obtain financial support of the School of Education of Rutgers University to develop a cooperative test reviewing project and the contributing participation of more than one hundred professional workers who were willing to write "frankly critical reviews." At least half of the names on the original roster of cooperative re-

viewers would be widely recognized in educational circles today and most of them with recognition of some distinction.

The idea of publishing evaluative commentary on the psychometric devices that were appearing by the hundreds leads to a result somewhere between the presumed objective standards of a consumers' research laboratory and an authoritative all-wise opinion. The onus of decision about the assignment of 'prominent stars' could not be assigned to a single judge and it could not be tolerated by the editor. All the problems of critical reviewing are present—subjective judgment, personal bias, uncertainty about objectives, paucity of data, and many others. It should not be expected that these problems would vanish because the material under review happens to be named *objective tests*. Perhaps the most insidious difficulty is the semantic confusion that pervades psychology when applied to education, guidance, mental health, and adjustment. Buros was sensitive to the issues and he has lavished gargantuan effort on the problem of getting appropriate editorial decision not subject to valid charges of bias in a context that was dedicated to improving the state of affairs by frankly critical exposure. It is interesting to see how it worked out.

If one is to engineer the publication of evaluative and hopefully definitive judgments without specific personal decisions, it is necessary to recruit a panel of qualified experts to do the job. Buros chose to select a "representative sampling of able test technicians, subject matter specialists, and psychologists." This editorial decision is a choice of policy. It escapes the need for the editor to assign or withhold prominent stars, but it does not settle the matter of qualifications since there is plenty of variation within and among the separate categories. It does, however, establish as a fact that Sandiford's hope for an authoritative judgment will not be satisfied. The end product will be instead a "representation of various viewpoints in American education."

To assure the representative requirement, invitation to participate was sent to "conservatives and progressives, to users and non-users of the tests to be

reviewed, and to friends and opponents of objective type tests." Having gone so far to avoid responsibility for absolute judgments, Buros introduced an important correction factor. He sought two or more reviews for each test. When he took this editorial posture, he found himself impaled on both horns of the democratic dilemma. Acceptance of the idea of broad representation of views on many discrete items like tests leads logically to the necessity for broad representation of opinion on each item. On the other hand, how can one know that



OSCAR KRISEN BUROS

On a study-trip to Africa in the summer of 1960

a heterogeneous representation represents or even encompasses competence of evaluative judgment?

THE preface to the 1938 volume contained the conventional statement that "both favorable and unfavorable comments will be gratefully received." They were received and gratefully, too, as indicated by their inclusion to the extent of five full and delicious pages quoted in the 1940 *Yearbook*, the second of the series. It is hard to say whether an aggrieved author is more aggrieved than an aggrieved publisher, but the theme songs of both thrust the editor into an extension of his initial ideas and a more elaborate expression of them.

The long and interesting introduction to the second *Yearbook* shows the results of tossing an editor from this horn to that, namely, the editor's problems of deciding who should review what and how to get broad representation of points of view while simultaneously supplying the unsophisticated test user with competent, well-qualified, fair, and unbiased judgments.

Buros describes in full how he went about selecting reviewers for the second volume. The initial 133 contributors were solicited for suggestions of others and the others suggested others until a list of 600 potential reviewers was assembled. For each of these, objective information descriptive of education, professional position occupied, research interests, and bibliographies of recent writings was compiled in order to "increase the likelihood of securing reviewers who are especially competent to review a particular test." Invitations were finally sent to 400 prospective reviewers. Here the idea of competence was made explicit. On the other side, an effort was made to choose persons "representing a wide variety of positions and viewpoints . . . as a result, a very heterogeneous group of reviewers have cooperated—classroom teachers, city school research workers, clinical psychologists, curriculum specialists, guidance specialists, personnel workers, psychologists, subject-matter specialists and test technicians. Various groups and schools of thought within each of these classes of reviewers have cooperated. For example, the reviewers include Americans and Britishers, authors and non-authors of standard tests, conservatives and progressives, persons with and persons without experience in administering, the tests reviewed, proponents and opponents of essay type tests, proponents and opponents of objective type tests, users and non-users of standard tests, and well-known and little-known persons." This is surely a classic example of a search for rampant representativeness.

In the next paragraph Buros pointed out that all the qualifications required of the ideal reviewer rarely exist in any one person and consequently it is necessary to have each test reviewed by several persons who are considered espe-

cially competent in their fields and who have the courage to speak frankly and honestly. In the 1940 *Yearbook* this idea was fully extended; Buros wrote "this representation of various viewpoints can only be achieved by having each test reviewed three to six times and in the case of a few tests, even more." By 1940 the philosophical bases of the editorial policy with respect to selection of reviewers and choice of their assignments had fully matured.

THE publication in January 1941 of the second *Yearbook* included tests published up to September 1940. It represented an achievement of prodigious individual labor—scholarly and executive and clerical. Efforts to obtain financial support from the foundations most interested in the development of testing had been uniformly rejected. The WPA provided some clerical assistance, but the support of sponsorship was fundamentally lacking. The story of this interval is encapsulated in the little fact that the volume is not copyrighted and that the business address of the publisher happens to be the residence of the editor. The management of the project right down to and including the wrapping and mailing of packages to fill orders was the personal activity of the editor. The fact that the book achieved publication is startling.

The publication of the 1940 *Yearbook* was startling, and the sequence of events in the next twenty years makes the whole development remarkable. The war interrupted the editor's projected plans. It is to the everlasting credit of Rutgers University that its School of Education and its University Research Council in the critical period after the war provided sponsorship, some financial assistance, and publication facilities to reactivate what had been proved to be an important and useful undertaking. The *Third Yearbook* covering the period 1940 to 1948 was published by the Rutgers University Press in 1949. The *Fourth Yearbook* published in 1953 and the current *Fifth Yearbook* which includes tests published through December 1958 were published without the benefits of official sponsorship, but with confidence that the reputation of the product would carry the project and

with the cooperation and moral support of an ever-increasing group of professional friends. At the present time, the *Third*, *Fourth* and *Fifth Yearbooks* are in print and they are indispensable sources of factual information and professional opinion about educational and psychological tests. The information about the tests is more complete and more reliable than the information in most publishers' catalogs. It is the first and usually the final source of information short of examining a specimen set.

It should now be clear that this reviewer has a high regard for the quality of the product under discussion and admiration for the persistent effort applied to its achievement. Next in order is a frankly critical comment about the future. The expansion in the size of the volumes together with the inflation in the costs of production may soon make these indispensable books available only in university reference libraries and in the personal libraries of a few hundred contributing reviewers who receive courtesy copies for their scholarly work. The 1940 volume of 700 pages sold for \$7.00. The next volume was 1,062 pages and sold for \$12.50. The *Fourth* and *Fifth Yearbooks* each increased in size by only 10%, but the most recent 1,322 page volume costs \$22.50. Clearly, if the *Yearbooks* of the future are to be easily available to the choosers and users of tests, the price must come down.

A first step could be a reduction in size of the volumes and correlated costs of editorial work as well as costs of manufacturing. This objective can be easily accomplished in substantial amount. Twenty percent of the printed pages can be eliminated by dropping the entire section devoted to reprinting book reviews that have appeared in sundry journals. The content that makes the *Yearbooks* indispensable, going all the way back to the volume published twenty years ago, is not the convenience of the encyclopedic packaging; the value resides in the fact that the factual information is not easily available anywhere else whereas the commentary of the test reviews is not available elsewhere at all. Reprinted reviews of books have no enduring value in this company of original contributions.

Another 5% and possibly more could

be saved by critical attention to the references to the professional literature that are appended to the bibliographical entries of the tests. The horrendous example is, of course, under the entry, *Rorschach*. Eighteen and one-half pages are occupied by 1,078 entries and these only supplement 1,219 entries which are listed in preceding *Yearbooks*. Buros suggests in the preface that the next *Yearbook* will eliminate all references. That decision is unfortunate. There is a better solution. Buros has erected a most substantial editorial pedestal on the theme of the frankly critical examination of the test products of authors and publishers. The treatment was, and remains, useful with respect to tests. A similar critical expression is sorely needed with respect to the literature reporting on tests. I do not mean to suggest the yearbook idea applied to reviews of the reshapes of theses in Education and Psychology that appear in the journals. I mean to suggest that Buros could properly, and profitably to all, exercise an editor's prerogative, indeed obligation, to delete. It would be constructively helpful if substantial references in the literature received the attention of a listing with the entry for the test. This reviewer would go even further. He would suggest that Buros exercise his editorial stature to curtail the review space allowed to inconsequential products of test authors and publishers.

The reader should not infer that the volume under review is burdened with inconsequential material. The significant contents of the *Fifth Yearbook* are the 698 original contributions prepared by 350 reviewers. Essentially every test published or revised in the period from 1952 to 1958 is included. These contents plus indices comprise more than one thousand pages. It is obviously impossible to document any generalizations about such a collection, but in a few minutes any reader can verify the following statements.

The editing for factual accuracy and completeness reaches a high standard of merit. The organization of the contents, the classification of entries, the bibliographical conventions adopted, and the indexing are excellent. The book is well manufactured. It would take a great

deal of time for a reader to comprehend the principal components of the human variability that endow the book with an interest quite independent of its utility as a reference. The clichés of the psychometric domain abound, especially "should be used with caution" and "more research is needed." The knowledgeable reader will enjoy the skilful grinding of axes. The student has much to gain from exposure to the differences of professional opinion and from the consistency with which his seniors apply fundamental ideas in their critique. Practically everyone will enjoy the frankly critical commentary which is liberally available, most frequently by implication, often direct but muted, and sometimes blunt and raucous. "Should not the do-it-yourself movement be stopped short of professional psychology," or "this test was published prematurely," or "it is recommended that the publisher remove the test from the market; users should encourage the publisher in this course of action by refusing to buy the inadequate product." The 350 contributors have done much more than polish such critical gems. They have done their work with devoted care—and they deserve a salute.

SUMMARIES AND YEARBOOKS

BY OSCAR K. BUROS

- Educational, Psychological, and Personality Tests of 1933 and 1934.* (Rutgers University Bulletin, Vol. 11, No. 11; Studies in Education, No. 7.) New Brunswick, N. J.: School of Education, Rutgers University, May 1935. Pp. 44. Paper. Out of print.
- Educational, Psychological, and Personality Tests of 1933, 1934, and 1935.* (Rutgers University Bulletin, Vol. 13, No. 1; Studies in Education, No. 9.) New Brunswick, N. J.: School of Education, Rutgers University, July 1936. Pp. 83. Paper, \$.50.
- Educational, Psychological, and Personality Tests of 1936: Including a Bibliography and Book Review Digest of Measurement Books and Monographs of 1933-36.* (Rutgers University Bulletin, Vol. 14, No. 2A; Studies in Education, No. 11.) New Brunswick, N. J.: School of Education, Rutgers University, August 1937. Pp. 141. Paper, \$.60.
- The Nineteen Thirty Eight Mental Measurements Yearbook of the School of Education, Rutgers University.* New

Brunswick, N. J.: Rutgers University Press, 1938. Pp. xv + 415. Out of print.

The Nineteen Forty Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, N. J.: Gryphon Press, 1941. Pp. xxv + 674. Out of print.

The Third Mental Measurements Yearbook. New Brunswick, N. J.: Rutgers

University Press, 1949. Pp. xv + 1047. \$12.50.

The Fourth Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, N. J.: Gryphon Press, 1953. Pp. xxv + 1163. \$18.00.

The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, N. J.: Gryphon Press, 1959. Pp. xxx + 1292. \$22.50.

Dependency: the Egg Hardens when the Butter Melts

Albert Bandura and Richard H. Walters

Adolescent Aggression: A Study of the Influence of Child-Training Practices and Family Interrelationships. New York: Ronald Press, 1959. Pp. xii + 475. \$7.50.

Reviewed by ELTON B. MCNEIL

Dr. McNeil is Associate Professor of Psychology in the University of Michigan and every summer runs the University's Fresh Air Camp where clinical psychologists, psychiatric social workers, and other professional people engaged in the amelioration of personalities are trained in the theory and techniques of therapy and the management of aggressive, emotionally disturbed boys. Dr. McNeil's latest publication is a monograph entitled Psychology and Aggression (Journal of Conflict Resolution, Sept. 1959, vol. 3, no. 3) which reviews and interprets what a couple of thousand books and articles have to say on this subject.

LIKE so many elements of man's psychological make-up, aggression is a creature of many faces—some beautiful, some ugly. This book is both a descriptive account of the Medusa of hostility as it is seen through the eyes of aggressive children and their parents and an attempt to trace the events which sometimes etch the face of adolescence with the stony countenance of anger. It is a work that bears the Robert R. Sears stamp of approval in a foreword which makes the enthusiastic prophecy that "the long centuries of pure unverified speculation about the influence of a child's rearing on his per-

sonality seem to have ended at last." Since the intentions and the accomplishments of the book are more modest than this encomium would suggest, the authors ought to be spared the odium of being the heralds of the psychological millennium.

The professional collaboration of Bandura and Walters was theoretically reasonable but geographically unpredictable. Walters came to Stanford for his PhD via the Department of Philosophy at Auckland University in New Zealand and a Fulbright Scholarship. Bandura left his native Canada to acquire a PhD at the State University of Iowa before reaching Stanford. Walters is now at the University of Toronto experimenting with the effects of social isolation on adolescent boys and his theoretical inclinations have shifted with the terrain. He is, literally and figuratively, closer to Skinner and more distant from Sears. Bandura remained at Stanford and is now convinced that aggressive boys have aggressive parents, that 'like model, like son' is the answer and identification is the means to the end.

THIS volume is an analysis of interviews with 52 adolescent boys and their parents. Twenty-six boys with histories of aggressive antisocial behavior were

matched on a one-to-one basis with boys judged to be neither markedly aggressive nor withdrawn. In the recent literary and scientific tradition of Sears, Maccoby, and Levin, excerpts from the interviews are inserted strategically throughout the book to document and illustrate the authors' conclusions. This technique allows the thrill of vicarious participation at the same time that it invites the reader to second-guess the experts. For such do-it-yourself interpreters, Bandura and Walters provide one chapter devoted to the detailed presentation of interview protocols of one aggressive subject and his control counterpart. The massiveness and complexity of these specimen interviews is an index to how formidable is the age-old task of packaging introspections for analysis; yet this undertaking was entrusted to six psychology undergraduates who converted the data into 61 five-point rating scales for parents and 85 scales for the adolescents. Since the research disclosures consist primarily of relationships discovered between these scales, this method of processing the interviews becomes a central pivot on which the meaningfulness of the conclusions may well depend. In this instance, the protection afforded by high interrater reliabilities may be more apparent than real.

Even hardened veterans of the interview battlefield cry in their pillows at night over the pains of selecting a proper sample, and Bandura and Walters had a suitable baptism of fire when they discovered it was necessary to base estimates of social status solely on the father's occupation, that nearly 50% of the mothers were gainfully employed, and that the aggressive boys significantly more often were members of large families. The matching of boys by age, father's occupation, and intelligence was done carefully, yet an unreported interaction exists between age and IQ. Ten of the 13 oldest aggressive boys have an IQ of 109 or less; exactly the reverse is true among the 13 oldest boys in the control group, ten of whom have an IQ of 110 or higher. This flaw in the matching may be a difference that is insubstantial or it may be vital to understanding the spirited resistance the aggressive boys are reported to display



RICHARD H. WALTERS

toward school and teachers. Such imperfections are vexatious but no cause for panic; they seem to be the inevitable scars of jousting with a sample.

THE avowed purpose of this study was to identify the factors in child training and the family interrelationships that contribute to the development of antisocial aggressive behavior in adolescent boys. Identifying these factors was by no means an aimless



ALBERT BANDURA

wandering-in-circles through a forest of possibilities, for Bandura and Walters had access to the maps and charts sketched during the early exploration by Sears and his associates. The embarkation point of the research was a theory that assumes antisocial aggression is a disorder originating primarily from the disruption of a child's dependency relationship to his parents. Thus, the 'affectional nurturance' a child receives ought to influence the amount of dependency behavior he will develop and the amount of frustration or punishment accorded dependency should determine its visibility in his behavior. While not all victims of non-nurturance and rejection exhibit aggressive disorders, the authors hold this to be an important precondition of its development. According to this theory, the parents of aggressive boys should be more rejecting to their sons, should permit them less dependency behavior, and be more punitive when dependency occurred. The boys, as a result of repeated parental rebuffs, should return these actions in kind and embark on a course of hostility and resistance shaped by their considerable anxiety about being dependent on anyone.

How did these hypotheses fare in the experimental task? Not as well as one would hope. To begin with, it was apparent that both aggressive and non-aggressive boys had received a great deal of maternal care during infancy and childhood. A significant difference was obtained only after the ratings of two separate measures of dependency (seeking the mother's help and seeking the mother's company) were combined. Both groups of parents said that they encouraged their boy's dependency and the fathers flatly denied that they punished evidences of it. The vicissitudes of dependency were fascinating to follow, but they proved not to be a reliable guide to the genesis of aggressiveness in adolescents. Had the interviews unequivocally confirmed the predicted relation of dependency and aggression, it would have been something of a research miracle, indeed. The delicate tissue of a child's dependency on his parents is difficult enough to detail when scrupulously observed in action; when its description rests on the fallible

recollection of the parents, only its most gross contour can remain. Too, the authors are aware that the post dictive design of the research is incapable of revealing "the extent to which the rejecting non-nurturant behavior of the parents of the aggressive boys was a cause or an effect of the boy's aggression" (p. 69). Hostility between parent and child—for whatever reason—would make dependency behavior its first victim. It is evident that dependency is not trail's end.

IDENTIFICATION, defined as "an acquired drive for which the satisfying goal response is *acting like another person*" (p. 252), is indispensable, say Bandura and Walters, in the child's progression from fear-controlled behavior to the mature restraint of guilt or conscience. Boys kept at an emotional arm's length by parents are deprived of the closeness necessary to identify with parental values, acquiring instead a will to aggress that is free of the taxation of guilt. Unfortunately, ratings of identification used to verify this hypothesis were based solely on the boys' statements that they felt, acted, or thought like one or the other of their parents. Lacking any evidence of actual congruence with parental attitudes or behavior and devoid of its usual unconscious component, this brand of identification at best resembles imitation and at worst bears a likeness to the confused concept that Nevitt Sanford once suggested we remove from our psychological lexicon because of its scientific inutility. Identification—if the construct is not to be misused—requires powerful evidence to distinguish it from behavior issuing from simple reinforcement. Identification has as many faces as aggression, and, if the child is said to identify, the theorist must state whether it is with the parent's aspirations, attitudes, or behavior and whether it is of an aggressive, anaclitic, defensive, developmental, emotional, or behavioral type. Later, when Bandura and Walters have recourse to "identification with the therapist" as the instrument for revising the life patterns of the aggressive child, the concept is even less explicit and leaves the perilous passage of therapy uncharted. Identification is

an intricate construct and one that must be courted seriously if it is to be courted at all.

The book achieves its greatest merit when it documents the attitudes of boys and their parents and presents information about the process of socialization. The recitals of the aggressive subjects in particular ring with distressing nonchalance as they trace the failure of socialization in incident after hostile incident. The savagery of their aggressiveness, the rancor of their response to restriction or discipline, and their disregard of parental demands come alive in a fashion that fascinates while it frightens. The helplessness and bewilderment of many of the parents are equally painful to observe. Somehow, the chemistry of child rearing that should have produced independence and normal assertiveness exploded into a resentment and rage which deeply scarred those closest to the reaction. So few of the child-rearing practices differed significantly for the two groups of parents that the reader is tempted to conclude that there is some truth in the adage 'the fire that melts the butter hardens the egg.'

While the enigma of aggression remains to perplex us, Bandura and Walters have demonstrated that its features are not nearly as inscrutable as we once supposed. They have forced it to reveal aspects of its nature by planning their campaign carefully, by approaching it systematically, and by persevering in a task notorious for its difficulty. As Sears states in the foreword to the book, "There can be no guarantee that a century hence the theory on which Bandura and Walters have built their study will still be in the historical mainstream of whatever is the most promising theory of that day. At the present time, however, it gives more promise than most, and its effectiveness in directing this piece of research—and ordering the findings—adds substantially to the reasonableness of a hope that it may lead to some rather extraordinary advances during the next decade." If the wilds of aggression are ever conquered, Bandura and Walters will deserve no small part of the credit. Certainly future explorers will find the trail blazed for a considerable distance.

Psychoses and Drugs for Men and Animals

P. B. Bradley, P. Deniker, and C. Radouco-Thomas (Eds.)

Neuro-Psychopharmacology. (Proceedings of the First International Congress of Neuro-Psychopharmacology, Rome, Sept. 1958.) Amsterdam: Elsevier Publishing Company, 1959 (distributed by D. Van Nostrand, Princeton, N. J.). Pp. xvi + 727. \$27.00.

Reviewed by CARL C. PFEIFFER

who is Director of the Division of Basic Health Sciences in Emory University at Atlanta. He is a psychopharmacologist working in biological psychiatry with those biochemicals that offer the possibility of changing the behavior or mood of normal patients or schizophrenics. They start with animals and then test volunteer human subjects.

THIS volume is the proceedings of the first International Congress of Neuro-psychopharmacology which was held in Rome in September 1958. The Congress held four symposia as follows: (1) and (2) methods of analysis of behavior in animals and man; (3) comparison in animals and man of drug-induced, abnormal behavioral states; and (4) comparison of drug-induced and endogenous psychoses in man. These symposia and the discussion of each are adequately recorded. A series of two plenary sessions were held to debate the impact of psychotropic drugs on the hospital and out-patient practice of psychiatry. The third plenary session was on neurochemistry which, with only two contributions, is probably the weakest portion of the printed proceedings. The rest and majority of the volume is devoted to the scientific papers which are classified under animal, normal-human, and clinical studies. These short communications are in order of frequency (1) English, (2) French, (3) Italian, and (4) German.

Some of the summary and symposia articles have been published in essence elsewhere, but most of the short communications are new, and many are stimulating in a field which has been dominated by concepts mediated largely by serotonin and phenindoles. Thus the steroid *hydroxydione* is an effective euphoriant, and *eserine* produces a lucid interval in catatonic schizophrenics. The subject index is adequate.

This volume will be of value as a reference book for psychologists, pharmacologists, and biologically oriented psychiatrists.

Psychologists' Mathematics, Emeritus

Don Lewis

Quantitative Methods in Psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960. Pp. xii + 558. \$9.50.

Reviewed by ROBERT R. BUSH

The author, Dr. Lewis, is Professor of Psychology at the State University of Iowa, where he has been since he took his PhD there in 1933, except for time out for one war. Quantitative methods have for a long time been one of his chief interests, the others being psychoacoustics and motor learning. The reviewer, Dr. Bush, is now Professor of Psychology at the University of Pennsylvania and chairman of its newly reorganized Department of Psychology. His earlier interests were nuclear physics and applied mathematics. He taught the latter subject at the New York School of Social Work in Columbia University. With Frederick Mosteller he published Stochastic Models for Learning (Wiley, 1955; CP, Apr. 1956, 1, 99-104).

THE best place for writing a textbook is the classroom. One's best critics are his students and former students. Professor Lewis apparently thinks so too, for he spent twenty years writ-

ing, extending, revising, and meeting criticisms. Thus, the book under review is not new to many of us though it is a pleasure to see the McGraw-Hill printing after trying to read the earlier litho-printed versions.

The one danger in spending twenty years writing a textbook is the possibility of drastic changes in the subject matter. This is just what has happened in the field of mathematical methods in psychology. When Professor Lewis began his book, psychology had seen little more than simple algebra in curve-fitting and an occasional differential equation. Matrix algebra was just beginning to appear as a tool in certain measurement problems. Since that time, mostly during the last ten years, much has happened. Several lengthy research monographs in mathematical psychology have appeared, four summer institutes on mathematics for social scientists have been held, and most of the larger departments of psychology have introduced some sort of modern course in mathematics for their graduate students. Professor Lewis' book does not appear to have been influenced in any serious way by those developments.

The book has three rather distinct parts. Chapters 1, 2, 3, and 4 are about curve-fitting, chapters 5 and 6 treat simple calculus, and chapters 7, 8, 9, and 10 analyze properties of the classical distribution functions in statistics. Chapter 11 is a collection of assorted topics in psychophysics and learning.

In the first four chapters, Lewis distinguishes between "linear functions" and "complex functions." By the former term he means nothing more general than straight lines in a two-dimensional space. By a "complex function" he means a nonlinear one—a curve that is not a straight line—and does not mean a function in the complex plane. This is an unfortunate term because "nonlinear function" would have served equally well and would have been less confusing.

The treatment of the calculus in Chapters 5 and 6 is a standard one; the emphasis is on rules of differentiation and integration rather than on concepts. Similarly, the four chapters on statistics are not unlike material which can be found in many introductory texts in

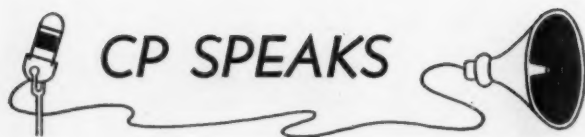
mathematical statistics (as distinguished from applied statistics). Although probability concepts are used throughout those four chapters, no systematic treatment of probability theory is provided. There is no mention of sample spaces, probability axioms, random variables, expectations, etc. The Law of Large Numbers and the Central Limit Theorem are not even stated.

The omission of probability theory is matched by another serious omission: fundamental set theory. In the opinion of this reviewer, every graduate student of psychology should know a little bit about sets, relations, and functions defined on sets. Furthermore, several years of experience have convinced many of us that this kind of mathematics is much easier to teach psychologists than calculus, for example.

Some psychologists will be disturbed, no doubt, by a third major omission in Professor Lewis' book: matrix algebra. Again, the fundamentals are not hard to teach.

Perhaps one should not criticize an author for what he did not attempt to do. Professor Lewis nowhere asserted that he would treat set theory, probability theory, and matrix algebra. Yet his title and his preface lead one to believe that the book covers all the major mathematical topics of importance to psychologists. It is here that the author and reviewer disagree. One need only glance at the books and journal articles in psychology published in the last ten years to see that Lewis' book is inadequate. Yet it may be a reasonable place to begin. No student will be harmed by learning the material presented here. Indeed, many of us began that way. But those of us who were involved for many years in the Social Science Research Council's program in mathematics for social scientists are convinced that it is more economical in the long run for a student to begin with modern mathematical texts such as K. O. May's *Elements of Modern Mathematics* (Addison-Wesley, 1959) or J. G. Kemeny, J. L. Snell, and G. L. Thompson's *Finite Mathematics* (Prentice-Hall, 1957).





CP SPEAKS

CP GROWS UP

IN 1962—and that's not so far away either—*CP* will leave the parental home and go to live with Fillmore H. Sanford at the University of Texas. The old man hates to see her go but knows that bright young things like *CP* (who will then be six years old) ought to be finding out what life is like and not hanging around the old folks. And what better future could one wish for *CP* than life with Fillmore Sanford? He can not only be trusted to protect her and provide for her; he can be guaranteed to make her life gay and exciting and also to let her personality develop and her mind expand. This is an engagement with splendid promise, one in which those friends of *CP* who know Sanford—and isn't that nearly everybody?—will rejoice. But do not get the confetti yet. There is still a year to go before the ceremony.

THE BIG SENTENCE

THE shortest verse in the Bible is "Jesus wept" (Jno. 11, 35). Once in a while a one-word paragraph is good, especially when it comes between two long ones. Maybe it just says

"Well?"

or maybe

"Yes."

Heaven knows where psychology's longest sentence would be, but *CP* is proud of knowing a 207-word sentence, and it thinks you would like to hear about it. It's a nice question as to whether it is a good sentence or a bad sentence. *CP's* Editor thought years ago when it was printed in 1948 that it was preposterous, but now that he reads it over a dozen years later, he finds to his surprise that the huge sentence is a kind of onomatopoeia in that it re-creates the breathless enormity and enormity of psychology's new-found gigantism right after the Second World War.

The sentence is by an erudite author, a man whose vocabulary is both rich and available, a past president of the American Psychological Association, and distinguished by enough other attributes to identify him if they were all specified. He is complaining about the American scene in academic psychology as of 1948, and the reason that Harvard does not appear in his big sentence is that it has already had a paragraph to itself. The writer turns from Harvard to "name some of the [other] institutions of the highest learning where [psychology] has undergone . . . the same superficial extension and the same superficial decline in departmental and logical unity as at Cambridge," Mass. He says that "there is, for example, the Chicago Case, growing out of an apparently mild bio-psycho-pedagogico affection," and then he comes to his 207-word mammoth that mirrors the anarchy he is describing:

To [Harvard] may be added Columbia's ambition to build a psychology out of Galtonian anthropometry, educational theory-and-practice and moto-intellective testing; the Champaign-Urbana campus in Eastern Illinois, ringed 'round with student chapels detrited from a vigorous pioneers' religion until a Scottish president made, in person, a search of the intermountain plain for a 'christian gentleman' to direct his psychology; the State of Kentucky filling a wall-case with testing blanks, reaction-keys and stop-watches, and labelling it 'Psychological Laboratory'; Iowa striving for tune and harmony between a psychologist's working-place upon the one bank of its divisive river and a psychiatric hospital upon the other; Yale setting our subject in the midst of an institute of human relations and laboring to make psychology and its family relations both amicable and coherent; the hill-dwellers at Ithaca baffled in their attempt artificially but officially to unite the heterogeneous enterprises of many men professing a variety, or an application, of psychology, and es-

pecially to unify a wide range of disparate subjects growing like mustard in Cornell's state colleges and schools with some indigenous sorts plotted in the endowed moiety of an ambivalent university under an executive with a bent for certain social studies and alleviative practices.

CP's Editor, long before *CP* existed, used to think of that sentence as psychology's longest and one of its worst. It remains the longest known to *CP* until someone sends in a bigger, but time has dulled its edge. It depicts a period, no longer with us in such inchoate chaos. Perhaps the main difference is that present complaint is always slightly alarming; it has to be reckoned with. Past complaint slips back into the comfortable world of fact. Time reduces unpredictable colleagues to obvious events. That is why posterity can assess its past with so much more assurance than the past could ever assess itself.

Just the same 207-word sentences should be reserved for 207-sized occasions. If *CP's* writers used only such sentences, *CP's* readers would need oxygen masks.

PSEUDONYMS

ANONYMOUS and pseudonymous reviews *CP* does not print (*CP*, June 1957, 2, 164f.)—except when the printer loses the "E.G.B." off the end of *CP* SPEAKS. There was one early exception, the review of Mach's *Analyse* by D. R. Mises (*CP*, June 1956, 1, 176f.), but *CP* did its best to indicate that that was a joke, and it gave the real name in parentheses in the index later (*CP*, Dec. 1956, 1, 378). There still exists the little group that wants all of *CP's* reviews anonymous so that they can be more 'honest,' but *CP* thinks that you run a better chance of getting honesty with responsibility than you do of getting responsibility with anonymity.

Not so long ago *CP* lost a really interesting review by sticking to this principle. The reviewer wanted to publish under a pseudonym and *CP* had said it would take the review with the pseudonym because it knew that it controlled the biographical paragraph about the reviewers. It was going to say that it found this review in its Christmas stocking, that the reviewer's name occurs in a few places as an author in the psy-

chological journals but never in *Psychological Abstracts*, that CP, being sure that the name must be a pseudonym, offers as a prize a copy of the book to the first reader who will penetrate the disguise. But the reviewer said No, and CP regretfully returned the review, which will now be published in another journal when CP might have had it. Why did this happen?

Remember about the NBs and the SMs (CP, Apr. 1960, 5, 124f.)? The NBs are the Nothing-But-ers, the tough, hard, rigorous, no-nonsense psychologists, the unyielding core of Science's mesomorphy. The SMs are the Something-More people, with imaginations bigger than their incomes, who can get along without controls, who hate the constraints of positivism, espouse freedom, and think that psychology will burgeon best in the warm sunshine of the Tropic of Values. CP knows and loves both the NBs and the SMs, but the SMs more in the sense of oftener. There are so many more SMs than NBs.

Well, this would-be pseudonymous reviewer was professionally an NB but the review he was creating was SM. As an NB he was ashamed of the review; it was beyond his pale. Outside his professional pale too were his wife and children and a whole raft of SM attitudes that radiated from him in an armchair but not over a lecture desk. Hyde could publish this interesting little piece only as Jekyll, and CP wouldn't accept Jekyll without a caveat emptor. That makes sense, doesn't it? Professional pride is another attribute that makes for integrity. *Tout comprendre, c'est. . .*

BOOKS TO COME

NEXT spring Holt, Rinehart and Winston is going to publish Theodore R. Sarbin's *Studies in Behavior Pathology: a Reader in the Experimental Psychology of the Abnormal*. Sarbin wants to make it possible for classes in abnormal psychology to get away from up-dated Krapelin and psychoanalytic case histories so as to read experimental research on human subjects, published in the last five or ten years, in clearly written papers that bear directly on significant problems in the pathology of behavior. In other words, he wishes to fix things so that he can send everybody

in a large class to the current journals without their having to line up for the journals or wearing out the selected article in the volume.

EARLY in 1961 McGraw-Hill is going to publish a book called *Personality Adjustment* by Henry Clay Smith of

Michigan State University. The book has been in the writing since 1956 when its author first conceived the need of getting the books and facts on personality integrated with the books and facts on adjustment with a resulting new text for the general course.

—E. G. B.

A General Systems Theory?

Alexander H. Leighton

My Name Is Legion: Foundations for a Theory of Man in Relation to Culture. (Stirling County Study of Psychiatric Disorder and Sociocultural Environment, Vol. I.) New York: Basic Books, 1959. Pp. xii + 452. \$7.50.

Reviewed by JAMES G. MILLER

Dr. Miller is still Professor of Psychiatry and Psychology at the University of Michigan and Director of Michigan's Mental Health Research Institute, which he and his colleagues began at the University of Chicago and brought to maturity at Michigan. For more about him, see his review of MacIntyre's *The Unconscious* (Humanities Press, 1958) in CP, May 1959, 4, 147f.

"MY name is legion, for we are many," said the cast-out devils to Christ as they left the possessed Gadarene. These words form the title for the first of a projected series of three reports upon a study of psychiatric disorder in a small community in Nova Scotia. Known as the Stirling County Study, this project combines the talents of anthropologists, sociologists, psychologists, and psychiatrists under the aegis of Cornell University and the Department of Public Health of the Province of Nova Scotia.

This long, and complex volume presents the theoretical framework within which the research was developed, the philosophy and concepts in accordance with which the data are to be analyzed in Volumes II and III. The theory is highlighted by a set of propositions including four that are considered fundamental. In addition there is a series of specific ones which concern the evolution of psychiatric disorder, the "essential striving sentiments" and their rela-

tions to sociocultural environment, the nature of society and culture, and the relation of these sociocultural patterns to psychiatric disorder.

Pattern and integration are key ideas in this theoretical structure, applying both to individuals and to sociocultural units. The person is looked upon as a "self-integrating unit." Personality is defined as the "acting of the human being as a whole." The community is conceived of as a self-integrating unit on another level, also characterized by exchange of energy and maintenance of a "dynamic equilibrium" in its environment.

Within the personality there are patterned subsystems, sequentially linked and simultaneously active, which may be selected and described differently according to the interests and purposes of the observer. This sounds very much like a general systems theory.

LEIGHTON's fundamental propositions are: "A-1. All human beings exist in a state of psychological striving. A-2. Striving plays a part in the maintenance of an essential psychical condition. A-3. Interference with striving leads to a disturbance of the essential psychical condition. A-4. Disturbance of the essential psychical condition gives rise to disagreeable feelings."

The author focuses upon cognition, affect, and basic urge as mutually exclusive components which integrate the

personality. These, however, are not to be regarded as actual subsystems, but as purely analytic aspects of the successive patterned events which make up a personality system. This system maintains itself in equilibrium as it moves along the "life-arc," adapting to changes within and without, controlling the energies of the total organism in an attempt to preserve its essential psychical condition. There are ten "essential striving sentiments," which remind one of Henry Murray's theory:

- (1) Physical security
- (2) Sexual satisfaction
- (3) Expression of hostility
- (4) Expression of love
- (5) Securing of love
- (6) Securing of recognition
- (7) Expression of spontaneity (called variously positive force, creativity, volition)
- (8) Orientation in terms of one's place in society and the places of others
- (9) Securing and maintaining of membership in a definite human group
- (10) A sense of belonging to a moral order and being right in what one does, being in and of a system of values

Interference with these strivings may occur under three primary conditions: blocking by the sociocultural environment, a defect in the object upon which the striving is focused, and a defect in-born or acquired in the already existing personality.

Other propositions following the four fundamental ones relate these elements to each other. For example: "B-1. Given a disturbance of the essential psychical condition, a personality may adopt patterns of sentiment and action which lead to some relief from the resultant disagreeable feelings (A-4), but which fail to restore adequately the essential psychical condition." And "H-1. Given that human society is composed of functioning self-integrating units based on patterns of interpersonal relationships; which include communications, symbols, and sentiments . . . it follows that the different functional parts of a particular unit such as associations, socioeconomic classes, and roles may have differential effects on personalities exposed to them and hence on mental health. . . ."



—Blackstone Studios

ALEXANDER H. LEIGHTON

The author gives a certain degree of support to the society-organism analogy, saying: "As organisms such as human beings are self-integrating units composed of cells which are also self-integrating, so also to some degree the community is an organism composed of human beings." And he adds: "It is a matter of looking at living processes in a certain way and within a framework that keeps in mind that they are living. Its usefulness lies not in enabling one to draw conclusions from organisms that apply to societies, but rather in enabling one to draw ideas and perspectives from organisms that aid in exploring the nature of community systems."

THIS reviewer agrees that such concepts in the long run will prove fruitful as stimulators of research that will lead to understanding of living systems at all levels. In fact, it may well be possible to take a stronger position than Leighton's, finding measurable formal identities across various levels of living systems, together with systematic differences characteristic of each level.

Though the basic philosophy of this book warms the reviewer's heart, it is difficult to see how many of the concepts can be operationalized. The future two volumes which present the data may give the answer.

Why do the notions seem hard to objectify? In the first place, while funda-

mental propositions concerning the "essential psychical condition" have obvious usefulness in attempting to establish a baseline, the concept is not clear. Whenever a writer uses the word *psychical* its opposition to *physical* hovers near—so near, in fact, that a misprint in a subtitle reversing these words crept unnoticed into the book. Is a dualism of body and mind implied or intended? Does the "essential psychical condition" include physical health, or is it disembodied? It is the reviewer's opinion that primary confusion in the conceptual scheme is mirrored in a lack of clarity of terms like this and like "essential striving sentiments."

These sentiments, which are processes or subjective states, nevertheless sometimes are described more like structures than functions. For example, Leighton says:

A sentiment is a construct that is always part of a personality, a subsystem of a system. Although the ten sentiments are listed, they are conceived not as more or less separate elements, but rather as interdependent combinations that are integrated and integrating in the functioning of persons. Each personality is a system which incorporates within its totality some patterned assemblies of these ten as it moves through the sequences of the life-arc.

The author recognizes the fuzziness of fusing structure and function in the following sophisticated passage:

It seems to me that 'structure' as a term can be troublesome when one is trying to grasp and analyze the nature of sociocultural and psychological phenomena. . . .

The meaning attributed to "structure" by sociologists, anthropologists, psychologists, and psychiatrists is one that is limited, denotative, and reasonably clear. Trouble arises from the fact that connotative meanings are carried over from other contexts in which the word has markedly different significance. For example, the usage with reference to personality and society is dynamic, while in anatomy, in architecture, and in many every day contexts, the word refers to the static aspect of things. . . .

Another and more important connotation is that of substance. The overwhelming force of the word in everyday usage is of an entity which can be seen and felt. It is—relative to other experiences in living—something directly available to the senses. This common meaning is also found in



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many sciences, particularly biology. When one speaks of the structure of the heart he is talking about visible-palpable substance, not the rhythmical contractions. The latter are an aspect of its functioning. Yet it is precisely the analogue in behavior of these contractions, this regular functional process, that is meant when one speaks of 'structure' in a society. The brain offers another example. Its 'structure' consists in the arrangements that can be seen with and without the aid of instruments such as the microscope. . . . The recurrent electrical events called brain waves are not considered structure, but rather a manifestation of functioning. Again, however, they are the kind of phenomena which in discussions of society are called 'structure.' The closest analogue in a community of the anatomical use of 'structure' is the arrangement of streets, houses, and other buildings.

A further point is this: in common terms, and also in biology, 'structure' is for the most part a description of observed nature, whereas in discussions of personality and society it is usually an inference from observed nature. . . .

It seems to me likely that the word 'structure' has been introduced largely as a metaphor, or diagrammatic term, into studies of personality and society, the aim being to emphasize regularities.

Here is the core of the problem, a deep confusion between what is 'concrete' and what is 'abstracted.' Though primarily concerned with communications and information flows, the social sciences need not disembodify their phenomena. What is wrong, if concrete systems are discussed—concrete individuals, concrete societies—in recognizing explicitly that their functions are embodied in a structured complex of energy and matter? They involve fluxes of energy or matter and fluxes of information. In all these there are patterns (as Leighton calls them, *regularities*)—but the regularities of function of a living system should not be confused with its structure.

Despite all this, the book shows gratifying scope and penetrating recognition of the complexities of observing, analyzing, and portraying the multiplex interactions of a human community. It places the issues of psychopathology where they belong, in a bio-socio-cultural context. Clearly and thoughtfully written, it will elicit respect from most of its readers.

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Feeling Tones in 3-DPT Productions
Unique Treatment Variables in 3-DPT Productions
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